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ABSTRACT

An analysis was conducted to compare two national surveys of American youth and to examine the life goals and occupational aspirations of college students in 1978 and of those in 1983. Two national data sets were used in the analysis. Both are based on traditional multistage probability design. The first was the 1978 National Public Affairs Study, a national sample of high school and college students (N=1,422). The second was the 1983 National College survey, a national sample of college students (N=2,011). The results revealed that there was an increase in religious conservatism from 1978 to 1983 among the students. Students in 1983 showed higher levels of commitment to career and family life goals than did students in 1978. The gender gap between males and females on career-oriented life goals decreased from 1978 to 1983. The number of students indicating a future career in education decreased from 1978 to 1983, while there was an increase in those indicating a future business career during the same time period. There was a gender-year interaction with occupational prestige of the intended occupation. In 1978 those who aspired to high prestige occupations were more likely to be males, while those who aspired to medium prestige occupations were more likely to be females. These positions reversed in 1983. (Author/NB)

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An Analysis of Life Goals and Occupational Aspirations of College Students in 1978 and 1983 in the United States

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ABSTRACT

This analysis compares two national surveys of American youth and examines the life goals and occupational aspirations of college students in 1978 and those in 1983.

Two national data sets are used in the analysis. Both are based on traditional multistage probability design. The first is the 1978 National Public Affairs Study, a national sample of high school and college students. The second is the 1983 National College survey, a national sample of college students.

Students in 1983 showed higher levels of commitment to career and family life goals than they did in 1978. The gender gap between males and females on career-oriented life goals decreased from 1978 to 1983.

The number of students indicating a future career in education decreased from 1978 to 1983, while there was an increase in those indicating a future business career during the same time period.

There was a gender-year interaction with occupational prestige of the intended occupation. In 1978 those who aspired to high prestige occupations were more likely to be males, while those who aspired to medium prestige occupations were more likely to be females. These positions reversed in 1983.

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1. INTRODUCTION

BACKGROUND

College students are an important part of American society and culture. The college years are a time when young people make many important decisions about the major goals they will be pursuing in their lives. Many of their attitudes about religion, life goals, and occupational choice begin to be crystallized during the college years.

It is the purpose of this paper to examine some of the religious beliefs, the life goals, and occupational aspirations of this college population.

It is important to ask what factors are influencing college career choices today. In what ways do such things as gender, age, religious values, and personal life goals influence career aspirations?

Those in higher education need to know the occupational plans of young people so they can do effective long-term planning, particularly if these occupational plans are changing. Schools may need to upgrade and expand some programs while cutting back on some others.

Students, who are no different from other people, tend to seek out and associate with others who have similar attitudes and values. The maintenance of these existing values and attitudes is an important aspect of college life (Feldman and Newcomb, 1969). The religious beliefs and participation in

local, national, and international community affairs seem to be less important than career and family-centered activities to most of these individuals entering the adult world.

The career fields that usually make the biggest gains are education, business, and social science/social service. Fields such as engineering, medicine, and physical sciences show losses, while those such as law, biological sciences, and humanities show little change. There appears to be a movement away from occupational interests that are technical, scientific, and mechanical, and a movement toward those occupations classified as social service oriented or persuasive (Feldman and Newcomb, 1969).

When working with data such as this, which is unmatched and cross-sectional in nature, one must be careful in inferring change. Part of the differences between groups may be due to differences in the kinds of students. One method of checking this change is to compare factor structures over the time being being analyzed. If the factor structure does not change, even though the individual scores may change, it can be interpreted to mean that students still perceive the same underlying meaning to the components of the factor (Feldman, 1972).

Characteristic differences between students exist before college begins. The student may not have any conscious awareness of the already present value structure which will play a role in career selection (Huntley, 1972).

According to Mannheim's model of generational change, individuals of college age have not yet made a definitive adjustment to society and, therefore, are susceptible to current historical and social environments. Once the questioning and openness of youth are past, the attitudes and values formed during the college years are likely to be long-lasting. "If this theory is correct, current changes in the attitudes of young people would be of greater significance since they would reflect possibly lasting social changes" (Goertzel, 1975, p. 108).

The emotional need to "discover one's identity" leads adolescents to feel there is divergence between their attitudes and those of their parents. They are trying to discover who they are, what their abilities are, and what their role in society will be. To define that role they need to develop a set of beliefs, values, and attitudes (Lerner, 1975).

Thornburg's conceptual model of developmental socialization defines the age period from 19 to 23 as a period of social integration in which the primary task is a synthesis of self-social ideas (Thornburg, 1975a). Peer influence is strong. College youth are the most representative of the "generation gap." They are the group who pose the greatest challenge to the traditional middle-class norms in American society.

The family still primarily influences one's values and behaviors throughout childhood. As the individual moves

through preadolescence to adolescence the influence shifts from family to peers. As they enter late adolescence most individuals carry with them the values and characteristics of their peer group during adolescence, but the influence of society begins to replace that of the peer group. That is unless the individual remains in an educational institution. In college, peer influence may still be more dominant that society's influence (Thornburg, 1975b).

Thornburg concludes his introduction to the section on "Socialization and Values:"

> In summary, the evidence that has been accumulating during the last decade indiciates that greater numbers of college youths are adopting new values and may subsequently behave, as adults, quite differently from their parents. . . . These new values involve challenge to established authority, alternatives to the Puritan ethic, new sexual morality, more cooperation, less competition, dissatisfaction with traditional marriage and family roles, and movement away from achievement and success and toward closer harmony with one's peers and with nature. (p. 99).

In a study of 200 white male seniors majoring in liberal arts which attempted to determine the relationship between political orientation and occupational values, McFalls and Gallagher (1979) concluded that there was a progressive increase or decrease in occupational values as subjects moved across the political orientation spectrum from conservative to radical.

Comparison of the results of research conducted on college women's life goals over the past thirty years indicates that the proportion of women aspiring to non-traditional roles remained at low levels during the 1950s and 1960s, but in-

creased dramatically during the 1970s. In a study of 118 female students enrolled in a coeducational college the data indicated that the women who aspired to non-traditional roles were not particularly privileged or exceptional in terms of demographic background or self-confidence. "It appears that as these women continue their education, they maintain their preferences for non-traditional careers, but lower their expectations in terms of careers, degrees, and immediacy of graduate school plans, marriage, and motherhood" (Zuckerman, 1975, p. 318).

The basic pattern of cultural change in America is diffusion from college students to other young people and then to the total population. Students in 1973 put more emphasis on careers and saw less importance in religion and patriotism than did students in the late 1960s. A study which compared college freshmen in 1968 and 1979 showed increases in importance of financial well-being in life, decreases in concern for developing a meaningful philosophy of like, and decreases in concern to keep up to date with political affairs. There is a strong correlation between religious values and family life (Hoge, Luna, & Miller, 1981). They conclude:

> These attitudes were brought to college much more than they were produced by the college experience itself. . . . On most measures there is increasing privatism. . . . There is growing traditional religious belief. . . . An element of the sixties showing no signs of reversing is the new stress on personal freedom in life-style.
>
> As a part of this new stress on personal gratification and personal freedom, we find a weakened sense of social responsibility. . . there is no sign of a new commitment to work for social betterment. (p. 273).

Cook (1981) found statistically significant and consistent gender differences across career choice variables in a study of 1200 undergraduates. Despite changing ideas about sex roles, college men and women still seemed to be heading toward sex-appropriate careers. Men chose occupations that involved such things as mathematical and scientific activities, investigation of scientific and cultural problems, leadership and persuasive activities, and achievement of organizational goals or economic gains. Women were more likely to choose occupations that involved things like interpersonal or educational activities and concern for the welfare of others.

THE DATA

The data base for this analysis comes from two national surveys: The 1978 National Public Affairs Study (NPAS) and the 1983 National College Survey, and will focus on some of the items which appeared in both surveys.

The 1978 National Public Affairs Study (NPAS)

The NPAS was designed to assess the interest in and knowledge about a series of public affairs issues among high school and college students. Sponsored in large part by the National Science Foundation, the college portion of the study utilized a multistage cluster sample of 44 colleges and universities, and institutions were selected within strata on the probability-proportionate-to-size sample. Questionnaires were

mailed to students. Follow-up mailings were sent out 15 days and 30 days after the original mailing. The second follow-up contained another questionnaire. A third follow-up was done by telephone or mailgram. The final response rate was 57 percent. A more complete description of the sampling design and field procedures is included in Miller, Suchner, and Voelker (1980).

The 1983 College Student Survey (CSS)

The 1983 College Student survey was sponsored by Simmons Market Research Bureau and the Public Opinion Laboratory of Northern Illinois University. A stratified national sample of 50 colleges and universities was selected and random samples of names from students in each of the colleges were selected. Each respondent received a letter describing the study, followed by a mailed questionnaire. Two dollars were included with each questionnaire as a reward for completing the instrument, which required about 30 minutes. One follow-up reminder letter was sent. A final response rate of 70 percent was obtained. It provides the most comprehensive portrait of student life of any national probability study conducted in recent years.

LOG-LINEAR ANALYSIS

The most widely used statistical technologies for the analysis of data such as that provided by these types of surveys are ANOVA and the linear regression model. However, because of the categorical nature of the variables being analyzed the assumptions necessary for these statistical procedures are not met.

An alternative technology is the cross-classification log-linear model developed by Leo Goodman (1972a, 1972b), Fienberg (1977, 1980) and others. This approach allows a multivariate analysis of categorical variables and seeks to utilize various sets of marginals to predict cell frequencies, and may be seen as comparable to the chi-square prediction method extended to the multivariate case. Like a regression equation, a log-linear model eliminates "noise" or extraneous variation by summarizing and, in a way, simplifying the table (Reynolds, 1977).

The goals of log-linear analysis are to explain variation, to explore causal relationships, and to make predictions. This is accomplished by a three-stage analysis which first screens for an appropriate model, then tests and compares the models under consideration, and, finally, examines the cell frequencies for differences between observed and expected values (Dixon et al. 1977, 1983).

The classical chi-square analysis is based on a multiplicative model. The log-linear model approach, on the other

hand, converts the classical analysis from a multiplicative to a linear model by taking the natural logarithm of the expected frequencies, hence the name "log-linear" (Baker, 1981). This approach increases the amount of information that can be obtained from the data.

The basis of log-linear models is the odds-ratio. This is the ratio between the frequency of being in one category and the frequency of not being in that category. Conditional odds are calculated within the table, corresponding to the traditional percentages. The odds ratio is formed by dividing the first conditional odds by the second (Knoke & Burke, 1980).

Another key concept of log-linear models is that of hierarchy. Because each term in the log-linear model "fixes" certain quantities, the sequencing of the models is very important. The basic assumption of the hierarchical principle in log-linear models is that a given model implies that all legitimate submodels were fitted prior to the model of interest. Failure to attend to the proper hierarchical relationship can yield totally incorrect results that are not recognized as such (Baker, 1981).

2. BASIC DEMOGRAPHICS

The analysis includes 1422 respondents from the 1978 NPAS and 2011 respondents from the 1983 CSS. The population surveyed was evenly distributed between males and females (see

Table 1). For the purpose of further analysis the students were dichotomized into those who were at or below the modal age for their year in school, and those who were above the modal age for their year in school. This was done so that the possibility of differences among those students older than their classmates and those the same age or younger could be investigated.

TABLE 1

Demographic Profile

	Percent
Gender	
Male	51%
Female	49
Year	
1978	42
1983	58
Age Group	
Younger	45
Older	55

There were more males than females who were above the modal age for their year in school. When comparing the college students of 1978 with the college students of 1983, it was noted that in 1978 there were more students above modal age than there were in 1983 (see Table 2). A possible explanation is that as the job market became increasingly more difficult to enter, some of the young people unable to find employment may have instead chosen to attend college.

TABLE 2

Percent Above Modal Age

	Percent	N
Total	55%	3433
Gender		
Male	60	1755
Female	50	1678
Year		
1978	60	1422
1983	52	2011

The three variables discussed above: gender, year, and age group were included as independent variables in the subsequent multivariate cross-classification analyses, using the logit methodology of Goodman (1972a, 1972b) and Fienberg (1977). The objective of the procedure is to predict cell frequencies rather than individual case values as in a quantitative regression model. In addition, the logit approach allows the easy identification of higher order interactions in the data and the utilization of these interactions in the model.

3. RELIGIOSITY

The respondents were given a number of items tapping various aspects of religious beliefs. The responses to these five items are summarized in Table 3.

TABLE 3

Percent Responding "Agree" or "Strongly Agree" to Religious Statements

	A	B	C	D	E	N
Total	74%	70%	68%	56%	37%	3433
Gender						
Male	70	66	66	50	35	1755
Female	78	75	69	62	40	1678
Year						
1978	71	66	65	50	28	1422
1983	77	73	70	61	44	2011
Age Group						
Younger	74	70	68	56	38	1530
Older	74	71	68	56	36	1903

Legend:
A = I feel it is important for my children to believe in God.
B = I believe there is God who can and has personally intervened in the lives of men and women.
C = I believe there is life after death.
D = Prayer plays an important role in my life.
E = I believe that the Bible is literally true and we should believe everything it says.

Almost three-fourths of these college students felt that belief in God was important for their children. Seventy percent of the students stated that they did believe in God. The great majority of them also believe in life after death, with 68 percent stating agreement with the statement. Prayer is an important part of the lives of over half of the students, with 56 percent agreeing that it is important to them. The only statement of religious values that had less than half of the students indicating agreement was the one concerning the literal truth of the Bible, where only 37 percent agreed.

Females were more likely than males to show agreement with all five of these religious statements. There was also an increase in the proportion agreeing with each of the statements from 1978 to 1983. There were no differences between the younger and older age groups (see Table 3).

An Index of Religiosity was constructed using these items to describe the general theological perspective of the respondent. Those who responded "agree" or "strongly agree" to at least four of the five statements were classified as "conservative." Those who responded "uncertain," "disagree," or "strongly disagree" to two or more of the items were classified as "liberal." The remainder were classified as "undetermined." The status of religiosity among the college students is displayed in Table 4.

TABLE 4

Religious Typology of College Students

	Conservative	Liberal	Undetermined	N
Total	55%	43%	3%	3433
Gender				
Male	50	48	2	1755
Female	60	37	3	1678
Year				
1978	41	57	2	1422
1983	65	32	3	2011
Age Group				
Younger	56	41	3	1530
Older	54	44	2	1903

Over half of the total population included in this analysis was classified as conservative and only three percent were classified as undetermined. Females were more likely than males to be conservative. There was an increase in the proportion classified as conservative from 41 percent in 1978 to 65 percent in 1983. There were slight differences among the two age groups, with younger students slightly more likely to be conservative and older ones slightly more likely to be liberal (see Table 4).

For the logit analyses the "undetermined" group was not included due to the small number of respondents in that category.

In conclusion, it can be stated that there appeared to be an increase in religious conservatism among college students from 1978 to 1983. This religiosity classification was also included as one of the independent variables in the multivariate analyses of life goals, occupational choice, and occupational prestige.

4. LIFE GOALS

The next step in the analysis was to examine the life goals priorities of the respondents. Respondents were asked to assess the relative importance of eleven life goals by indicating which ones were "essential," "very important," "somewhat important," or "not important" to them. A factor analysis of the resulting data found three factors, which were

labeled "career," "politicization," and "family." The results of this factor analysis are reported in Table 5.

As a method of checking to make sure that there were no differences in the perceptions of the underlying meaning of the statements between the two years, a separate factor analysis was done for 1978 students and 1983 students. The results of these analyses showed the same factor structure.

TABLE 5

Factor Structure for Life Values

Looking ahead into the future, how important would you consider:	Oblique Factor Patterns 1	2	3
becoming an authority in my field?	.79	.05	-.09
becoming well off financially?	.69	-.20	.15
having administrative responsibility over other's work?	.67	.05	.02
obtaining recognition from colleagues for contributions to my special field?	.64	.13	-.06
becoming accomplished in my career field?	.57	.10	.02
influencing political decisions and structures?	.07	.72	-.17
keeping up to date with political affairs?	.08	.68	-.13
participating in community affairs?	-.05	.66	.30
influencing social values?	.20	.51	.08
developing a meaningful philosophy of life?	-.05	.49	.07
raising a family?	.08	.06	.68

CAREER VALUES

Closer examination of the five items included in the career factor showed that 88 percent of the total population ranked "becoming accomplished in career field" as important. There were no significant differences among the subpopulation groups on this item (see Table 6).

TABLE 6

Percent Responding "Essential" or "Very Important" to Career Values Items

	A	B	C	D	E	N
Total	88%	56%	52%	42%	35%	3345
Gender						
Male	89	59	57	44	39	1714
Female	87	54	47	40	30	1631
Year						
1978	88	49	51	40	30	1397
1983	88	61	53	43	38	1948
Age Group						
Younger	88	56	51	41	36	1488
Older	89	56	53	43	34	1857
Religiosity						
Conservative	89	57	55	42	38	1882
Liberal	88	55	49	42	30	1463

Legend:
A = Becoming accomplished in career field
B = Becoming well off financially
C = Becoming an authority in chosen career field
D = Obtaining recognition from colleagues for contributions to chosen career field
E = Having administrative responsibility over other's work

The next highest ranking was that of "becoming well off financially," with 56 percent indicating that it was an important life goal. Males were more likely than females to rank this item as important. There was a significant increase on this item between 1978 and 1983, with only 49 percent selecting it as important in 1978 while 61 percent selected it in 1983.

Third ranked career value was "becoming an authority in chosen field," with slightly over half of the students selecting this as an important goal. Males were more likely than females to choose this as a goal, as were religious conservatives (see Table 6).

"Obtaining recognition from colleagues" was the fourth ranked item on this factor. Males were more likely to select it than were females. There was a slight increase from 40 percent in 1978 to 43 percent in 1983. Older age group students were also more likely to rate this item as important (see Table 6).

The last item on the factor was "having administrative responsibility over other's work." Again males were more likely than females to give this item importance as a future life goal. There was an increase in its importance from 1978, with only 30 percent defining it as important, to 1983 when 38 percent defined it as important (see Table 6).

The factor was then dichotomized for the multivariate analysis. Those who responded "essential" or "very important"

to three of more of these five career items were classified as "high" on the career values index. All others were classified as "low." The distribution for this career value index is shown in Table 7.

TABLE 7

Percent Ranked High on Career Values Index

	Percent	N
Total	54%	3345
Gender		
Male	59	1714
Female	49	1631
Year		
1978	51	1398
1983	57	1947
Age Group		
Younger	54	1489
Older	55	1856
Religiosity		
Conservative	55	1882
Liberal	53	1463

While these bivariate relationships are suggestive of significant differences, they can only be confirmed by multivariate analysis, as individuals reflect combinations of the independent variables. It is essential to examine the multivariate distribution of them in order to see if there are any interaction effects. The multivariate distribution for the career values index is displayed in Table 8.

TABLE 8

Multivariate Distribution of Those High on Career Values Index

Gender	Year	Age Group	Religiosity	Percent	N
Male	1978	Younger	Conservative	61%	105
			Liberal	61	153
		Older	Conservative	53	160
			Liberal	53	315
	1983	Younger	Conservative	59	261
			Liberal	57	164
		Older	Conservative	63	349
			Liberal	65	209
Female	1978	Younger	Conservative	42	149
			Liberal	44	150
		Older	Conservative	53	173
			Liberal	42	194
	1983	Younger	Conservative	53	348
			Liberal	50	157
		Older	Conservative	53	337
			Liberal	50	120

A logit analysis was then done using gender, year, age group, and religiosity as independent variables and career values as the dependent variable. The results are reported in Table 9. The analysis indicated that the main effects of the four independent variables provided a reasonably good fit, accounting for almost 79 percent of the total mutual dependence in the model (see Table 9). For those not familiar with Goodman's log-linear technique, model H1 provides an estimate of the total mutual dependence in the model, that is, the total

error in a proportional-reduction-of-error sense. The Likelihood Ratio chi-square (L.R.X2) is utilized as a measure rather than the Pearson chi-square because the former is additive while the latter is not. The Coefficient of Multiple-Partial Determination (C.M.P.D.) is a measure of the proportional reduction of error and may be viewed roughly as analagous to the multiple R2 in quantitative regression models.

TABLE 9

Multivariate Model of Career Values Index

Model	Terms	d.f.	L.R.X2	C.M.P.D.
H1	RAYG,C.	15	59.69	----
H2	RAYG,CY,CR,CA,CG.	11	12.66	.788
H3	Difference due to CG.	1	34.13	.572
H4	Difference due to CY.	1	10.40	.174
H5	Difference due to CR.	1	1.01	.017
H6	Difference due to CA.	1	0.22	.004
H7	RAYG,CG,CY.	13	13.89	.767

Legend:
d.f. = degrees of freedom
L.R.X2 = Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square
C.M.P.D. = Coefficient of Multiple-Partial Determination
R = Religiosity
A = Age Group
Y = Year
G = Gender
C = Career Values

Model H2 is the main effects model and provides an estimate of the improvement in prediction based on the direct effect of each of the four independent variables on the career values index. By deleting each of the main effects from model H2 one at a time, it is possible to determine the relative contribution of each main effect. For example, model H3 is the same as model H2 except that the CG term (the direct effect of gender on the career values index) has been deleted, thus it is possible to determine by subtraction that the gender accounted for slightly over 57 percent of the mutual dependence in the model, and was the strongest of the main effects.

The other significant effect in this analysis was that of year, which accounted for an additional 17 percent of the total variation (see Model H4 in Table 9). Since one of the goals of log-linear analysis is parsimony, the analysis selects only those items that have a statistically significant effect for inclusion in the final model. The object is to see how much can be left out of the model and still give a reasonable improvement on the prediction of the dependent variable.

The final model for the career values index, then, included the relationship between gender and career values, and that between year and career values, and accounted for almost 77 percent of the variation. This was considered a good fit. What this means is that if the gender and year are known, the ranking on the career values index can be correctly predicted 77 percent of the time.

The data indicated a gender difference in career values as well as a change over time. Using the Standardized Value of Goodman's lambda (which has the same interpretation as a Z-score and is significant at the .05 level with a value of 1.96 or greater), it is noted that males were much more likely than females to be rated as "high" on the career values index (see Table 10). There was also a significant increase from 1978 to 1983. There were no significant three-way interactions identified in this model.

TABLE 10

Significant Relationships in Career Values Index

		Low		High	
Predictors	N	%	S.V.	%	S.V.
Gender					
Male	1714	41%	-5.83	59%	5.83
Female	1631	51	5.83	49	-5.83
Year					
1978	1398	49	3.23	51	-3.23
1983	1947	43	-3.23	57	3.23

POLITICIZATION VALUES

The five items on the politicization factor are further examined in Table 11. Sixty-five percent of the students felt that "developing a meaningful philosophy of life" was an important goal. There was no gender difference. There was a drop in importance of this item over time, with only 62 percent ranking it as important in 1983, compared with 70 percent

who ranked it as important in 1978. Older students were also more likely to rank this item as important, as were religious conservatives (see Table 11).

TABLE 11

Percent Responding "Essential" or "Very Important" to Politicization Values Items

	A	B	C	D	E	N
Total	65%	43%	39%	31%	26%	3345
Gender						
Male	65	42	42	30	28	1714
Female	66	45	37	31	24	1631
Year						
1978	70	43	39	28	20	1397
1983	62	43	39	32	29	1948
Age Group						
Younger	60	44	38	29	24	1488
Older	70	43	40	32	27	1857
Religiosity						
Conservative	67	50	39	35	26	1882
Liberal	63	35	39	25	25	1463

Legend:
A = Developing a meaningful philosophy of life
B = Participating in community affairs
C = Keeping up to date with political affairs
D = Influencing social values
E = Influencing political decisions and structures

The second ranked item in this factor was "participation in community affairs," with 43 percent indicating it as an important goal for their future life. Females were more likely than males to choose it as important. So were religious conservatives.

Third ranking on the politicization factor was "keeping up to date with political affairs," with 39 percent indicating it as important (see Table 11). Among the subpopulations, the only significant difference was that males were more likely to select it than were females.

Next on this factor was "influencing social values," with 31 percent rating it as important. There was a slight increase from 1978 to 1983, and older students were more likely to rate it as important than were the younger students. Religious conservatives were also more likely than religious liberals to give it importance as a future life goal.

The final item on this factor was "influencing political decisions and structures." Slightly over one-quarter of the students selected this as a life goal. Males were more likely than females to give it importance. This item also showed an increase from 1978 to 1983 (see Table 11).

This factor was also dichotomized for log-linear analysis. Those who responded "essential" or "very important" to two or more of the five items were classified as "high" on the politicization values index. All others were classified as "low." The distribution of respondents on the politicization index is displayed in Table 12. The multivariate distribution is shown in Table 13.

The logit analysis is shown in Table 14. The main effects of religiosity, age group, year, and gender accounted for almost 84 percent of the variation in the model. The relationship between religiosity and politicization was highly

TABLE 12

Percent Ranked High on Politicization Index

	Percent	N
Total	59%	3345
Gender		
Male	58	1714
Female	59	1631
Year		
1978	56	1398
1983	60	1947
Age Group		
Younger	56	1489
Older	60	1856
Religiosity		
Conservative	63	1882
Liberal	53	1463

significant and accounted for almost 60 percent of the variation (see Model H3). The age group relationship was also significant, accounting for 13 percent of the variation. Again, there were no significant three-way interactions identified. The final model (model H7) included the two significant terms and accounted for slightly over 81 percent of the variation, and was a very good fit.

Examination of the standardized values for the final model shows that religious conservatives were more likely than religious liberals to be high on the politicization values index (see Table 15). Older age group students were also more likely to score high on this index than were those in the younger age group.

TABLE 13

Multivariate Distribution of Those High on Politicization Index

Gender	Year	Age Group	Religiosity	Percent	N
Male	1978	Younger	Conservative	59%	104
			Liberal	47	152
		Older	Conservative	64	159
			Liberal	58	315
	1983	Younger	Conservative	59	261
			Liberal	56	164
		Older	Conservative	64	350
			Liberal	56	209
Female	1978	Younger	Conservative	65	149
			Liberal	46	150
		Older	Conservative	62	173
			Liberal	51	194
	1983	Younger	Conservative	62	349
			Liberal	52	158
		Older	Conservative	66	338
			Liberal	57	121

TABLE 14

Multivariate Model of Politicization Values Index

Model	Terms	d.f.	L.R.X2	C.M.P.D.
H1	RAYG,P.	15	44.95	----
H2	RAYG,PR,PA,PY,PG.	11	7.23	.839
H3	Difference due to PR.	1	26.91	.599
H4	Difference due to PA.	1	5.86	.130
H5	Difference due to PY.	1	1.19	.026
H6	Difference due to PG.	1	0.01	.000
H7	RAYG,PR,PA.	13	8.43	.812

Legend:
d.f. = degrees of freedom
L.R.X2 = Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square
C.M.P.D. = Coefficient of Multiple-Partial Determination
R = Religiosity
A = Age Group
Y = Year
G = Gender
P = Politicization Values

TABLE 15

Significant Relationships in Politicization Values Index

		Low		High	
Predictors	N	%	S.V.	%	S.V.
Religiosity					
Conservative	1882	37%	-5.18	63%	5.18
Liberal	1463	47	5.18	53	-5.18
Age Group					
Younger	1489	43	2.42	57	-2.42
Older	1856	40	-2.42	60	2.42

FAMILY VALUES

There was only one item that measured the importance of family in the future of the student, and over half of the respondents stated that "raising a family" was an important goal for their future (see Table 16). There were no differences between genders or age groups. Students in 1983 were more likely to place a high value on raising a family than were the students in 1978. Religious conservatives were also more likely to state that raising a family was an important future goal.

TABLE 16

Percent Responding "Essential" or "Very Important" to Family Values Item

	Percent	N
Total	65%	3345
Gender		
Male	65	1714
Female	65	1631
Year		
1978	60	1398
1983	68	1947
Age Group		
Younger	65	1489
Older	64	1856
Religiosity		
Conservative	73	1882
Liberal	55	1463

The multivariate distribution for the importance of raising a family is shown in Table 17.

TABLE 17

Multivariate Distribution of Those High on Family Value Index

Gender	Year	Age Group	Religiosity	Percent	N
Male	1978	Younger	Conservative	77%	105
			Liberal	54	153
		Older	Conservative	75	159
			Liberal	51	314
	1983	Younger	Conservative	74	261
			Liberal	63	164
		Older	Conservative	71	349
			Liberal	59	209
Female	1978	Younger	Conservative	66	149
			Liberal	48	151
		Older	Conservative	67	172
			Liberal	54	195
	1983	Younger	Conservative	74	349
			Liberal	55	157
		Older	Conservative	75	338
			Liberal	57	120

The logit analysis for this factor is shown in Table 18. The main effects model (H2) was highly significant, accounting for 92 percent of the variation. The most important component of the model was religiosity, which accounted for almost 71 percent. Slightly less than six percent was accounted for by year, which was also a statistically significant contribution.

There were no three-way interactions identified as significant. The final model (H7) included both religiosity and year, and accounted for over 91 percent of the variation in the model.

TABLE 18

Multivariate Model of Family Values Index

Model	Terms	d.f.	L.R.X2	C.M.P.D.
H1	RAYG,F.	15	133.14	----
H2	RAYG,FR,FY,FG,FA.	11	10.73	.920
H3	Difference due to FR.	1	94.30	.708
H4	Difference due to FY.	1	7.62	.057
H5	Difference due to FG.	1	1.11	.008
H6	Difference due to FA.	1	0.11	.001
H7	RAYG,FR,FY.	13	11.89	.916

Legend:
d.f. = degrees of freedom
L.R.X2 = Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square
C.M.P.D. = Coefficient of Multiple-Partial Determination
R = Religiosity
A = Age Group
Y = Year
G = Gender
F = Family Values

TABLE 19

Significant Relationships in Family Values Index

		Low		High	
Predictors	N	%	S.V.	%	S.V.
Religiosity					
Conservative	1882	27%	-9.66	73%	9.66
Liberal	1463	45	9.66	55	-9.66
Year					
1978	1398	40	2.77	60	-2.77
1983	1947	32	-2.77	68	2.77

SUMMARY OF LIFE GOALS FACTORS ANALYSES

College students of 1983 appeared to have more defined life goals than did those in 1978 (see Table 20). The biggest change was that in the family values index, with a change of nine percent. This is encouraging news for those who feel the importance of the family is decreasing. It would be interesting to explore this aspect further to see what conceptions of "family" these students have and how these might differ from the conventional concepts of family.

Males were much more likely than females to be rated "high" on the career goals index. Apparently the "Women's Lib" movement still has some work to do to get these women to raise their career goals. Older age group students were more likely than younger ones to be rated "high" on the politicization values index. Perhaps these older students have a more "mature" outlook on their long-range life goals.

TABLE 20

Percent Scoring High on Life Goals Factors

	Career	Politicization	Family	N
Total	54%	59%	65%	3345
Gender				
Male	59	58	65	1714
Female	49	59	65	1631
Year				
1978	51	56	60	1398
1983	57	60	68	1947
Age Group				
Younger	54	56	65	1489
Older	55	60	64	1856
Religiosity				
Conservative	55	63	73	1882
Liberal	53	53	55	1463

LIFE GOALS TYPOLOGY

Using the three factors defined above, a Life Goal Typology was then created. Those who were classified as "low" on all three factors were classified as "uncommitted" with respect to life goals. Those who were classified as "low" on family goals, but "high" on either or both of the other factors were classified as "external." Those who were classified as "high" on family goals and "high" on either or both of the other factors were classified as "mixed." Those who were classified as "high" on family and "low" on the other two factors were classified as "family." The results of this classification are displayed in Table 21.

TABLE 21

Life Goal Typology of College Students

	Uncommitted	External	Mixed	Family	N
Total	10%	25%	51%	13%	3345
Gender					
Male	10	25	54	10	1714
Female	9	26	49	16	1631
Year					
1978	11	29	47	13	1398
1983	9	23	55	13	1947
Age Group					
Younger	10	24	52	14	1489
Older	10	26	52	13	1856
Religiosity					
Conservative	7	21	59	14	1882
Liberal	14	31	42	12	1463

Over half of the students were classified as "mixed," one-quarter were classified as "external," 13 percent were classified as "family," and ten percent were classified as "uncommitted." Males were more likely than females to have mixed life goals, while females were more likely than males to be family-oriented. There was a decrease in the number who were "uncommitted" and the number who had externally oriented life goals from 1978 to 1983. The family oriented percent was the same for both years. However, there was an increase in those who had mixed life goals and, since this category includes family goals, one could conclude that there was an indirect increase in the importance of family values from 1978

to 1983. There were no differences between the older age group and younger age group students in any of the four classifications in the typology. There were relatively large differences between the religiosity groups. Religious liberals were much more likely to be uncommitted or externally-oriented, while religious conservatives were more likely to have a mixed or family orientation (see Table 21). The multivariate distribution of students on the life goal typology in shown in Table 22.

The logit analysis confirms these differences. The main effects model (H2) accounted for over 81 percent of the variation (see Table 23). The largest single effect was that of religiosity, which accounted for almost 53 percent. Other significant effects were gender, which accounted for over 14 percent, and year, which accounted for almost five percent.

There were two significant three-way interactions identified. These are shown as Model H7 and Model H8 (see Table 23). The first was that between religiosity and year, which accounted for almost five percent. The second was that between age group and year, which accounted for almost four percent.

Inclusion of all significant terms in the final model produced an excellent fit, accounting for over 95 percent of the variation in the independence model.

The standardized values for the significant relationships in the final model are displayed in Table 24. Religious con-

TABLE 22

Multivariate Distribution of Life Goal Typology

Gender	Year	Age Group	Religiosity	Life Goal Typology U	E	M	F	N
Male	1978	Younger	Conservative	8%	15%	69%	9%	105
			Liberal	14	32	44	10	153
		Older	Conservative	6	20	63	12	158
			Liberal	14	36	40	11	314
	1983	Younger	Conservative	8	18	60	14	261
			Liberal	14	23	54	9	164
		Older	Conservative	8	21	62	9	349
			Liberal	12	29	51	9	210
Female	1978	Younger	Conservative	9	25	52	14	149
			Liberal	17	35	34	15	150
		Older	Conservative	5	27	54	13	172
			Liberal	13	33	33	21	194
	1983	Younger	Conservative	5	21	55	19	348
			Liberal	14	31	39	16	158
		Older	Conservative	7	19	59	16	338
			Liberal	17	26	46	10	121

Legend:
U = Uncommitted
E = External
M = Mixed
F = Family

servatism had a direct and positive effect on mixed and family orientation. Religious liberalism had a direct and positive effect on externally oriented life goals and the lack of clearly defined life goals. Twice as many religious liberals than conservatives were classified as being uncommitted to a life goal typology.

TABLE 23

Multivariate Model of Life Goal Typology

Model	Terms	d.f.	L.R.X2	C.M.P.D.
H1	RAYG,L.	45	203.46	----
H2	RAYG,LR,LY,LA,LG.	33	37.43	.816
H3	Difference due to LR.	3	107.73	.529
H4	Difference due to LG.	3	29.67	.146
H5	Difference due to LY.	3	9.32	.046
H6	Difference due to LA.	3	1.32	.006
H7	Difference due to LRY.	3	9.55	.047
H8	Difference due to LAY.	3	7.75	.038
H9	RAYG,LRY,LAY,LR,LG,LY.	27	20.43	.954

Legend:
d.f. = degrees of freedom
L.R.X2 = Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square
C.M.P.D. = Coefficient of Multiple-Partial Determination
R = Religiosity
A = Age Group
Y = Year
G = Gender
L = Life Goals Typology

The results in Table 24 illustrate the importance of viewing the changes in a multivariate model. The figures in Table 21 show no significant difference between the religiosity groups in the family oriented life goal typology. However, the multivariate analysis shows there is a change between them and that this change is related to year (see Table 24). Religious conservatives were less likely than religious liberals

to have a family only life goal typology in 1978 but more likely to do so in 1983. Religious conservatives were more likely than liberals to have a mixed life goal typology in 1978 and less likely to do so in 1983. It might be that some religious conservatives shifted from a mixed orientation (which also includes family) in 1978 to a family only orientation in 1983.

Males were more likely than females to have a mixed orientation, while females were more likely to have a family only orientation.

The only life goal typology category to have a significant standardized value for a direct effect between years was that of mixed orientation. This showed an increase from 1978 to 1983.

Another example of the multivariate advantage is shown in the interaction between age group and year. The figures in Table 21 show no significant differences in any of the four life goal typologies between the age groups. The multivariate analysis shows that there is a significant difference in the family oriented typology category. Older students in 1978 were more likely to be family oriented, while younger age groups students in 1983 were more likely to be family oriented.

TABLE 24

Significant Relationships in Life Goal Typology

			Life Goal Typology							
			Uncommitted		External		Mixed		Family	
Predictors		N	%	S.V.	%	S.V.	%	S.V.	%	S.V.
Religiosity										
Conservative		1880	7%	-5.88	21%	-2.89	59%	8.78	14	2.82
Liberal		1464	14	5.88	31	2.89	42	-8.79	12	-2.82
Gender										
Male		1714	10	n.s.	25	n.s.	54	4.23	10	-4.23
Female		1630	9	n.s.	26	n.s.	49	-4.23	16	4.23
Year										
1978		1395	11	n.s.	19	n.s.	47	-2.44	13	n.s.
1983		1949	9	n.s.	23	n.s.	55	2.44	13	n.s.
Year	**Religiosity**									
1978	Conservative	584	7	n.s.	22	n.s.	58	2.58	12	-2.05
	Liberal	811	14	n.s.	34	n.s.	38	-2.58	14	2.05
1983	Conservative	1296	6	n.s.	20	n.s.	59	-2.58	15	2.05
	Liberal	653	14	n.s.	27	n.s.	48	2.58	11	-2.05
Year	**Age Group**									
1978	Younger	557	12	n.s.	28	n.s.	48	n.s.	12	-2.47
	Older	838	10	n.s.	30	n.s.	46	n.s.	14	2.47
1983	Younger	931	9	n.s.	22	n.s.	54	n.s.	15	2.47
	Older	1018	9	n.s.	23	n.s.	57	n.s.	11	-2.47

5. OCCUPATIONAL CHOICES

EDUCATION OCCUPATIONS

The first category of expected occupation examined was that of educational occupations. The respondents were dichotomized into those who selected an education occupation and those who did not. Included in the education occupation category were all those respondents who indicated "college teacher or administrator," "school counselor," "elementary teacher or administrator," or "secondary teacher or administrator" as one of their occupational preferences (see Table 25). Thirteen percent indicated one of these educational occupations as a possible future career preference.

Over twice as many females as males selected an educational occupation. There was a slight decline from 15 percent in 1978 to 12 percent in 1983. Among the religiosity categories there were more religious conservatives than liberals who indicated a preference for a career in education. Those who selected an education occupation were more likely to be ranked low on the career value index. (see Table 25). The multivariate distribution for those selecting an occupation in the education field is shown in Table 26.

The logit analysis of educational occupation preference included gender, year, age group, religiosity, and career values index as the independent variables. The main effects model accounted for almost 74 percent of the variation (Model

TABLE 25

Percent Selecting Education Occupation

	Percent	N
Total	13%	3343
Gender		
Male	8	1712
Female	19	1631
Year		
1978	15	1395
1983	12	1948
Age Group		
Younger	13	1487
Older	14	1856
Religiosity		
Conservative	15	1882
Liberal	11	1461
Career Values Index		
Low	16	1528
High	11	1815

H2). Gender was the strongest effect, accounting for almost 44 percent of the variation. Religiosity was the next strongest effect, with almost ten percent. Year had the third strongest effect, accounting for nine percent of the variation. Career value index added an additional six percent (Model H6).

There was a third-order interaction identified between career value index and religiosity which accounted for almost four percent of the variation. The addition of all these significant terms resulted in a final model which accounted for

TABLE 26

Multivariate Distribution of Education Career Selection

Gender	Year	Age Group	Religiosity	Career	Percent	N
Male	1978	Younger	Conservative	Low	5%	41
				High	5	63
			Liberal	Low	9	59
				High	8	93
		Older	Conservative	Low	14	74
				High	13	85
			Liberal	Low	12	146
				High	5	168
	1983	Younger	Conservative	Low	10	106
				High	7	155
			Liberal	Low	14	70
				High	4	93
		Older	Conservative	Low	10	131
				High	7	219
			Liberal	Low	6	73
				High	8	136
Female	1978	Younger	Conservative	Low	37	87
				High	19	62
			Liberal	Low	11	84
				High	23	66
		Older	Conservative	Low	37	82
				High	21	91
			Liberal	Low	15	113
				High	20	81
	1983	Younger	Conservative	Low	20	164
				High	10	185
			Liberal	Low	10	80
				High	14	79
		Older	Conservative	Low	21	158
				High	20	179
			Liberal	Low	13	60
				High	10	60

TABLE 27

Multivariate Model of Educational Occupation including Religiosity, Age, Year, Gender, and Career Values Index

Model	Terms	d.f.	L.R.X2	C.M.P.D.
H1	CRAYG,E.	31	149.85	----
H2	CRAYG,EA,EC,ER,EG,EC.	26	39.53	.736
H3	Difference due to EG.	1	65.63	.437
H4	Difference due to ER.	1	14.52	.097
H5	Difference due to EY.	1	13.55	.090
H6	Difference due to EC.	1	9.29	.062
H7	Difference due to EA.	1	1.70	.011
H8	Difference due to ECR.	1	5.54	.037
H9	CRAYG,ECR,EG,ER,EY,EC.	26	35.69	.762

Legend:
d.f. = degrees of freedom
L.R.X2 = Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square
C.M.P.D. = Coefficient of Multiple-Partial Determination
C = Career Values Index
R = Religiosity
A = Age Group
Y = Year
G = Gender
E = Education Occupation

over 76 percent of the variation, and provided a good fit to the data.

Female gender, conservative religiosity, and year 1978 each had a direct and positive effect (see Table 28). High career values had a direct and negative effect.

TABLE 28

Significant Relationships in Education Occupation using Religiosity, Age, Year, Gender, and Career Values Index

Predictors		N	Education %	Education S.V.	Other %	Other S.V.
Gender						
Male		1712	8%	-7.86	92%	7.86
Female		1631	19	7.86	81	-7.86
Religiosity						
Conservative		1882	15	3.65	85	-3.65
Liberal		1461	11	-3.65	89	3.65
Year						
1978		1395	15	3.81	85	-3.81
1983		1948	12	-3.81	88	3.81
Career Values						
Low		1528	16	2.33	84	-2.33
High		1815	11	-2.33	89	2.33
Religiosity	Career					
Conservative	Low	843	19	2.53	81	-2.53
	High	1039	12	-2.53	88	2.53
Liberal	Low	685	11	-2.53	89	2.53
	High	776	10	2.53	90	-2.53

The indirect effect of career values through religiosity showed that religious conservatives with low career values were more likely to select an education occupation, while religious liberals with high career values were more likely to do so.

BUSINESS OCCUPATIONS

The other category of expected occupation examined was that of business occupations. Again, respondents were dichotomized into those who selected a business occupation and those who did not. Included in the business occupation category were those respondents who indicated "accountant," "business executive or manager," "business owner or proprietor," and "business sales or buyer" as an expected occupation. Slightly less than one-fourth of the students indicated a preference for one of these business occupations (see Table 29).

More males than females chose business occupations. There was also an increase from 1978 to 1983. There were no differences between the age groups or the religiosity groups. Those who were rated high on the career values index were more likely to select a business occupation than were those who were ranked low (see Table 29). The multivariate distribution is shown in Table 30.

The model to predict the selection of a business occupation included the same independent variables as the one used to predict educational occupation (see Table 31). The amount of variation accounted for in the main effects model was almost 81 percent (see Model H2). Significant direct effects were identified for career value index, which accounted for 27 percent of the variation; gender, which accounted for almost 23 percent; and year, which accounted for an additional 22 percent.

TABLE 29

Percent Selecting Business Occupation

	Percent	N
Total	24%	3345
Gender		
Male	28	1717
Female	18	1630
Year		
1978	19	1399
1983	27	1948
Age Group		
Younger	25	1488
Older	23	1859
Religiosity		
Conservative	24	1883
Liberal	23	1464
Career Values Index		
Low	19	1531
High	28	1816

One significant three-way interaction was identified. Year through career values index accounted for almost five percent of the variation. The inclusion of all significant terms in the final model (Model H9) accounted for almost 85 percent of the variation, an excellent fit.

Direct effects of high rating on the career values index and male gender were in a positive direction. There was also a positive and direct effect in 1983. This means that those who selected business fields as a probable future occupation were likely to be males who scored high on the career values index and were in school in 1983.

TABLE 30

Multivariate Distribution of Business Career Selection

Gender	Year	Age Group	Religiosity	Career	Percent	N
Male	1978	Younger	Conservative	Low	15%	41
				High	30	63
			Liberal	Low	27	59
				High	29	94
		Older	Conservative	Low	9	75
				High	29	85
			Liberal	Low	17	147
				High	27	168
	1983	Younger	Conservative	Low	24	106
				High	36	155
			Liberal	Low	26	70
				High	31	94
		Older	Conservative	Low	31	131
				High	33	219
			Liberal	Low	30	74
				High	34	136
Female	1978	Younger	Conservative	Low	10	87
				High	15	62
			Liberal	Low	13	85
				High	24	66
		Older	Conservative	Low	11	82
				High	21	91
			Liberal	Low	8	113
				High	21	81
	1983	Younger	Conservative	Low	22	164
				High	28	185
			Liberal	Low	24	79
				High	24	78
		Older	Conservative	Low	17	158
				High	26	179
			Liberal	Low	15	60
				High	25	60

TABLE 31

Multivariate Model of Business Occupation including Religiosity, Age, Year, Gender, and Career Values Index

Model	Terms	d.f.	L.R.X2	C.M.P.D.
H1	CRAYG,B.	31	110.88	----
H2	CRAYG,BA,BC,BR,BG,BY.	26	21.21	.809
H3	Difference due to BC.	1	30.36	.274
H4	Difference due to BG.	1	24.90	.225
H5	Difference due to BY.	1	24.29	.219
H6	Difference due to BA.	1	1.02	.009
H7	Difference due to BR.	1	0.10	.001
H8	Difference due to BYC.	1	5.05	.046
H9	CRAYG,BYC,BY,BC,BG.	27	17.17	.845

Legend:
d.f. = degrees of freedom
L.R.X2 = Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square
C.M.P.D. = Coefficient of Multiple-Partial Determination

R = Religiosity
A = Age Group
Y = Year
G = Gender
C = Career Values Index
B = Business Occupation

The interaction between career values index and year showed that students with a high rating on the career values index in 1978 were more likely to select a business occupation, while those with a low rating on the career values index were more likely to select an occupation in the business category in 1983.

TABLE 32

Significant Relationships in Business Occupation using Religiosity, Age, Year, Gender, and Career Values Index

Predictors		N	Business %	Business S.V.	Other %	Other S.V.
Career Values						
Low		1531	19%	-5.83	81%	5.83
High		1816	28	5.83	72	-5.83
Gender						
Male		1717	28	4.94	72	-4.94
Female		1630	20	-4.94	80	4.94
Year						
1978		1399	19	-5.36	81	5.36
1983		1948	27	5.36	73	-5.36
Year	Career Value					
1978	Low	689	13	-2.26	87	2.26
	High	710	25	2.26	75	-2.26
1983	Low	842	23	2.26	77	-2.26
	High	1106	30	-2.26	70	2.26

6. OCCUPATIONAL PRESTIGE

The final dependent variable analyzed was that of occupational prestige. The prestige score was based on the occupational prestige scores of Hodge, Siegel, and Rossi (1964). Each occupation was assigned a prestige score. The distribution was then trichotomized into "low," "medium," and "high" prestige occupations.

The distribution of the resulting categories of occupational prestige is shown in Table 33. Almost three-fourths of the college students aspired to medium or high prestige occupations.

TABLE 33

Expected Prestige of College Students

	Low	Medium	High	N
Total	27%	34%	39%	2947
Gender				
Male	24	26	49	1565
Female	30	43	27	1382
Year				
1978	27	33	41	1265
1983	27	35	38	1682
Age Group				
Younger	26	35	39	1314
Older	27	34	39	1633
Religiosity				
Conservative	28	36	36	1664
Liberal	26	31	43	1286
Career Values Index				
Low	29	37	34	1307
High	25	32	43	1640

Females were more likely than males to aspire to a medium or low prestige occupation, while males were more likely to aspire to a high prestige occupation. There was a slight decline in the percent aspiring to high prestige occupations from 1978 to 1983. This decline was reflected in the increased number of those aspiring to medium prestige occupations. There was no change in the low prestige category from 1978 to 1983.

There were no differences between the age groups in any of the three prestige categories. Religious liberals were

more likely than religious conservatives to aspire to a high prestige occupation, while conservatives were more likely to aspire to a medium prestige occupation.

Those students who were ranked high on the career values index were more likely to aspire to a high prestige occupation. Those who were ranked low on the career values index were more likely to aspire to a medium or low prestige occupation than were those who were ranked high (see Table 33). The multivariate distribution for occupation prestige is displayed in Table 34.

A logit analysis was then performed with occupational prestige as the dependent variable and the same five independent variables: gender, age group, year, religiosity, and career values index (see Table 35). The main effects model accounted for almost 76 percent of the variation. Gender was the strongest direct effect, accounting for almost 60 percent of the variation. An additional 30 percent was added by the effect of the career value index.

While there was no direct effect of year identified, there was a significant interaction between year and gender which contributed almost six percent (see Model H8). The final model (model H9) accounted for almost 79 percent of the variation and provided a very good fit for the data.

The gender effect showed that males were more likely to aspire to a high prestige occupation and females more likely to aspire to a medium or low prestige occupation (see Table

TABLE 34

Multivariate Distribution of Occupational Prestige

Gender	Year	Age Group	Religiosity	Career	Prestige Low	Med	Hi	N
Male	1978	Younger	Conservative	Low	24%	12%	63%	41
				High	23	21	56	61
			Liberal	Low	17	30	53	53
				High	17	24	59	92
		Older	Conservative	Low	26	24	50	62
				High	27	19	54	81
			Liberal	Low	28	30	42	33
				High	19	19	63	55
	1983	Younger	Conservative	Low	30	33	38	95
				High	21	32	47	41
			Liberal	Low	23	39	39	62
				High	21	15	64	80
		Older	Conservative	Low	27	31	42	16
				High	25	27	49	00
			Liberal	Low	28	25	47	64
				High	28	33	40	29
Female	1978	Younger	Conservative	Low	33	47	21	83
				High	38	35	28	58
			Liberal	Low	31	40	28	67
				High	25	48	27	59
		Older	Conservative	Low	31	51	18	67
				High	29	48	24	84
			Liberal	Low	34	41	25	97
				High	32	42	26	72
	1983	Younger	Conservative	Low	32	47	21	36
				High	28	41	31	63
			Liberal	Low	26	37	37	62
				High	30	34	36	61
		Older	Conservative	Low	32	47	21	22
				High	23	47	30	54
			Liberal	Low	32	36	32	47
				High	30	32	38	50

TABLE 35

Multivariate Model of Occupational Prestige including Religiosity, Age, Year, Gender, and Career Values Index

Model	Terms	d.f.	L.R.X2	C.M.P.D.
H1	CRAYG,P.	62	247.46	-----
H2	CRAYG,PC,PR,PG,PA,PY.	52	60.13	.757
H3	Difference due to PG.	2	147.20	.595
H4	Difference due to PC.	2	15.93	.064
H5	Difference due to PR.	2	4.43	.018
H6	Difference due to PA.	2	2.22	.009
H7	Difference due to PY.	2	1.94	.008
H8	Difference due to PYG.	2	13.49	.055
H9	CRAYG,PYG,PG,PC.	54	52.84	.786

Legend:
d.f. = degrees of freedom
L.R.X2 = Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square
C.M.P.D. = Coefficient of Multiple-Partial Determination
C = Career Values Index
R = Religiosity
A = Age Group
Y = Year
G = Gender
P = Occupational Prestige

36). The career value index was significant only within the high occupational prestige category, with high career values having a positive and direct effect.

The interaction effect of gender and year was significant within both medium and high occupational prestige categories. In 1978 males were more likely to aspire to high prestige occupations, while in 1983 it was the females who were more

TABLE 36

Significant Relationships in Occupational Prestige including Religiosity, Age, Year, Gender, and Career Values Index

		Occupational Prestige					
		Low		Medium		High	
Predictors	N	%	S.V.	%	S.V.	%	S.V.
Gender							
Male	1565	24%	-3.23	26%	-8.49	49%	11.99
Female	1382	30	3.23	43	8.49	27	-11.99
Career Values							
Low	1307	29	n.s.	37	n.s.	34	-3.88
High	1640	25	n.s.	32	n.s.	43	3.88
Gender Year							
Male 1978	678	23	n.s.	23	-2.14	55	3.66
1983	887	25	n.s.	29	2.14	46	-3.66
Female 1978	587	32	n.s.	44	2.14	24	-3.66
1983	795	29	n.s.	42	-2.14	29	3.66

likely to aspire to a high prestige occupation. These positions were reversed within the medium prestige category. In 1978 females were more likely than males to aspire to a medium prestige occupation and in 1983 males were more likely than females to aspire to a medium prestige occupation (see Table 36).

7. SUMMARY

There was an increase in religious conservatism from 1978 to 1983 among college students. Each of the five items showed an increase in the proportion of agreement from 1978 to 1983.

There was also an increase in the importance of career oriented values. Four of the five items showed significant increases from 1978 to 1983. The remaining item already had an 88 percent agreement in 1978 and this remained constant in 1983. The greatest increase was that in response to the statement of "becoming well off financially." Are the students becoming more materialistic, or does this reflect the economic uncertainties of today's high unemployment?

The proportion of students ranked high on the career values index increased from 1978 to 1983. There was a gender difference in both years, with more males than females ranking high on the career values index. However, the females seem to be closing the gap as the difference between the genders is decreasing. Over half of the females were ranked high in 1983, compared with only 43 percent in 1978. There were 56 percent of the males ranked high in 1978 and 61 percent in 1983.

Among the politicization items there was an increase in the percent rating the influencing of political decisions and structures as important. There was also an increase in the proportion agreeing with the importance of influencing social values. Fewer students in 1983 felt that developing a meaningful philosophy of life was important. The other politicization statements showed no change.

There was an overall increase in the proportion of students ranked high on the politicization values index, but this

increase was not statistically significant. There were significant differences between the religiosity groups and between the age groups. Religious conservatives and older students were both more likely to be ranked high on this factor.

There was a significant increase in the importance of the the family value item from 1978 to 1983. Religious conservatives were more likely than religious liberals to rank this item as an important future goal.

It can be concluded that students in 1983 showed higher levels of commitment to career and family life goals than they did in 1978. Of the three factors analyzed, more students responded "essential" or "very important" to career factor items than to the politicization or family items.

There were many differences in the life goal typology categories, particularly the mixed and family only orientations. There were significant differences in all four classificaitons between the religiosity groups. There were more liberals than conservatives who were uncommitted or who had an external life goal typology. Conservatives, on the other hand, were more likely to have either a mixed or family only life goal typology.

Gender differences were apparent in the mixed and family only typologies, with males more likely than females to have a mixed typology and females more likely than males to have a family only typology.

There was an increase in the number who had a mixed typology from 1978 to 1983. There were significant interactions between year and religiosity, and between year and age group.

There were more conservatives than liberals with a mixed typology in 1978, while there were more liberals than conservatives with a mixed typology in 1983. The reverse was true for the family only life goal typology. In 1978 liberals were more likely than conservatives to have a family only typology. In 1983 it was the conservatives who were more likely than the liberals to have a family only typology.

The interaction between age group was significant in the family only typology category, and showed that older students in 1978 were more likely than younger ones to have a family only typology, while in 1983 there were more younger than older students who were classified as family only.

There was a decrease in the number of students indicating a future career in education from 1978 to 1983. Females were more likely than males to state that they intended to pursue a career in education. Other groups that indicated a career in education were religious conservatives and those ranked as low on the career values index. The interaction between religiosity and the career values index showed that religious conservatives with low career values and liberals with high career values were more likely to indicate a future career in education.

The interest in business careers increased from 1978 to 1983. Males were more likely than females to anticipate a future business occupation. Those who indicated a business occupation as their probable future career were also more likely to be ranked high on the career values index. The interaction between year and the career value index showed that those who selected a business career in 1978 were more likely to have high career values, while in 1983 they were more likely to be low on the career value index.

Males were more likely than females to aspire to a high prestige occupation, while females were significantly more likely to aspire to medium or low prestige occupations. Those who aspired to high prestige occupations were also more likely to have high career values. There was a significant interaction between gender and year. In 1978 those who aspired to a high prestige career were more likely to be males, while those who aspired to medium prestige occupations were more likely to be females. The positions reversed in 1983, with females more likely than males to aspire to a high prestige occupation, and males more likely than females to aspire to a medium prestige occupation. This should be encouraging news for those active in the women's movement.

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